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ABSTRACT

An extensive basal evaluation form--written in a series of 73 questions, each requiring a short narrative response and many with specific references to notes in the appendices--is presented in this paper. The evaluation form is divided into two sections: general questions on teacher's guides and general questions on student books. The questions on student books are subdivided into the following categories: (1) audience appropriateness; (2) phonics; (3) schema theory; (4) learning strategies; (5) text structure; (6) vocabulary; (7) megacognitive theory; (8) graphics; (9) workbooks; and (10) tests. Descriptions of research keyed to specific questions supplement the evaluation form and are appended. These comprise 80 percent of the document. A bibliography is included. (JD)

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BASAL EVALUATION FORM AND SUPPORTING RESEARCH

By

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June 1986

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BASAL EVALUATION FORM by VALERIE HUYDIC

Directions: Please write a short narrative explanation for each question. Citing examples from the program would be helpful. Explicit notes are included in the Appendices. Please refer to them as needed.

Teacher's Guide: General Questions	
1. Are the Teacher's Guides well organized and easy to follow? Are the teaching directions in guides simple and clear? Does the Teacher's Guide include an overview of the complete program, each level, each unit?	
2. Does the direct instruction allow the teacher to explain the steps in a thought process, model, demonstrate and illustrate the reading skills and strategies that students will be using? (Appendix A)	

Student's Book: General Questions on Text Content	
3. Are the stories interesting, understandable and memorable? (Appendix B)	
4. Do early basals as well as intermediate basals contain high-quality nonfiction selections? (Appendix C)	
5. Is irrelevant or distracting information included in the text?	
Audience Appropriateness	
6. Are students familiar with topics included?	

7. Are concepts introduced appropriate for the intended reader?	
8. Is sentence structure, length and vocabulary appropriate? (Appendix D)	
9. Are many story types children will encounter in "real-life" reading included? (Appendix E)	
10. Do the nonfiction selections contain meaty texts, rich with important concepts and information, but at the same time are easy to understand?	

Phonics	
11. From the very beginning, does the program emphasize that a reading selection should serve the dual goals of advancing children's skill at word identification AND helping them to understand that reading is a process not simply of word recognition, but one of bringing ideas to mind? (Appendix F)	
12. Is the phonics taught explicitly, implicitly, or are both methods used? (Appendix G)	
13. Are too many letter-sound relationships taught? (Appendix H)	
14. Is phonics kept simple? (Appendix I)	

15. Does phonics instruction go hand in hand with opportunities to identify words in meaningful sentences and stories? (Appendix J)	
16. Is phonics instruction completed by the end of second or third grade? (Appendix I)	
17. Do children encounter in the materials they are asked to read words that embody the letter sound relationships that are being taught? (Appendix K)	
Schema Theory (Appendix L)	
18. Does the manual include suggestions designed to help children activate relevant knowledge before they start reading?	

19. Does the manual feature prediction techniques that will lead the readers to meaningfully integrate what they already know with what they are reading? (Appendix M)	
20. Does the text systematically move students to higher levels of concepts and vocabulary and to more complex text structures so that students will develop schemas for reading increasingly difficult and demanding expository and narrative materials?	
21. Are there questions that lead children to integrate information about the central points of a selection with their prior knowledge? (Appendix N)	
22. Are children given the opportunity to relate the contents of a selection to what they know <u>after</u> they have read the story? (Appendix O)	

Learning Strategies	
23. Does the Teacher's Guide specifically define strategies for students to use to aid them in identifying, using, or comprehending the skill or selection?	
24. Does the Teacher's Guide provide step-by-step instructions on how students should use the strategies? (Appendix P and KK)	
25. Are there built-in opportunities for students to practice with feedback and corrections? (Appendix Q)	
26. Is the level of strategy instruction eventually faded out so that students would take responsibility for their own learning and use the strategies independently? (Appendix R)	

27. Do examples clearly demonstrate the skill being presented? (Appendix S)	
28. Are enough examples provided for all students to understand? (Appendix S)	
29. Is there alternative instruction when students do not understand?	
30. Are skills introduced and then directly applied? Does skill instruction precede reading the story and then is the skill directly applied to the story? (Appendix SS)	

31. Does reinforcement (reteaching) include reteaching with new, additional techniques or strategies?	
32. Do suggestions for enrichment require students to use analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating skills with new, additional related content? (Appendix T)	
33. Are children given massed practice on a new skill? Is sufficient time spent on a skill at the beginning? (Appendix U)	
34. Are writing activities integrated with the reading? (Appendix V)	

Text Structure: How organized and readable is this text?	
35. Are pronoun referents clear? (Appendix W)	
36. Are the relationships among ideas clear?	
37. Is the expository text organized in appropriate patterns of organization? (Appendix X)	
38. Do the authors use signal words to indicate the organization of expository selections? Are they explicitly taught? (Appendix Y)	

39. Do the authors use previews, introductory statements, headings, and summary statements in expository selections to organize the text? Are these techniques of text organization explicitly taught?	
40.(A) Do stories in the early grades have a predictable structure? Are students given insight into characters' goals, problems, motives, plans, and feelings? (Appendix ZA) (B) Do the questions following the story probe the major elements of the plot? (Appendix ZB)	
41. Are questions following reading at all levels of comprehension (literal, inferential and evaluative) and is each type of question clearly identified? (Appendix AA)	
42. Are there too many detail questions? Do questions about details serve as links in a chain of questions that lead to an inference about a difficult part of the passage or an understanding of the selection as a whole? (Appendix BB and ZB)	

Vocabulary	
43. Does vocabulary instruction help students relate new vocabulary to their background knowledge?	
44. Does the program accommodate for differences in word difficulty? (Appendix CC)	
45. Does vocabulary instruction go beyond memorizing a definition or learning a word in a single context? Are students encouraged to consider multiple contexts for a word? (Appendix DD)	
46. Are effective strategies to teach vocabulary included?	

47.	Are students given strategies so that they can acquire new vocabulary independently?	
48.	Is the student given repeated exposure to a word (more than once or twice)? (Appendix EE)	
49.	Are students actively involved in learning new vocabulary? Is the student given the opportunity to make the word his own by interacting with it or by creating a novel synthesis of it and known information? Is the student asked to do something with a new word, such as finding an antonym, fitting the word in a blank, classifying the word with other words, restating the definition in own words, making up novel sentences that demonstrate the word's meaning clearly? (Appendix FF)	

50. Is there a BALANCED emphasis between definitional and contextual information? (Appendix DD)	
Metacognitive Theory (Appendix GG)	
51. Are metacognitive strategies such as summarizing, self-questioning, predicting, use of organizational patterns, paraphrasing and note-taking taught? (Appendix HH)	
52. Does the manual provide for teacher modeling of metacognitive strategies? (Appendix II)	
53. Is there sufficient practice provided for each metacognitive strategy? (Appendix JJ)	

54. Are the students told what they are to learn and why it is important? (Appendix KK)

    Does the Teacher's Guide give specific objectives?

Graphics: pictures, graphs, charts, maps, tables

55. Are graphics functional and clear? Is there direct instruction in understanding and using graphic material?

56. Do pictures overwhelm or distract from the text?

57. Are pictures closely integrated with the meaning of the text? Do the graphics highlight, clarify or complement the idea presented?

Workbooks	
58. Do workbooks reinforce the instruction in the manual? Are workbook tasks related to the reading in the basal text?	
59. Are directions clear, concise, brief, and easy enough for children to read independently?	
60. Are there enough practice exercises so that students feel confident they understand the skill being practiced? (Appendix JJ)	
61. Do examples focus on the most important aspects of the skill being taught?	

62. Is vocabulary in the workbook consistent with the rest of the program? Consider whether the vocabulary in the workbook is more complex.

63. Are the page layouts clear?

64. Is there systematic and cumulative review?

Tests

65. What tests are included in the testing component, e.g. placement, criterion - referenced, etc?

66. Is the testing format compatible with the practice format?	
67. Is the level of difficulty of test items equal to the level of difficulty of text and practice materials?	
68. Are there enough distractors and are the distractors legitimate?	
69. Are there enough items to adequately test a skill? (Appendix LL) How many?	

70. Do lesson and test objectives match? Do lessons teach what is tested?	
71. Do the test items tap higher levels of thinking and reading or is too much factual information tested? (Appendix AA)	
72. Do students need the instruction to pass the tests or could they pass the test before they had instruction?	
73. Are the directions for both teachers and students clear and easy to understand?	

APPENDIX A

Direct instruction refers here to the teacher's intention of directly transmitting skills and concepts in a lesson by including input and modeling.

"Effective teachers teach; that is, they explain directly to their students by definition and example. Overwhelming support exists for teaching the basic skills in reading through direct instruction...At the heart of the process is the direct explanation and demonstration of a given skill by the teacher... the more time the teacher spends directing and guiding students' learning, the better the chance that students' achievement will be enhanced."

Blair, Timothy R. "Teacher effectiveness: The know-how to improve student learning." The Reading Teacher, 38 (November 1984), pp. 139 - 141.

John J. Pikulski of the University of Delaware explains modeling in this way:

"In its simplest form, I think modeling means that a teacher deliberately, directly, explicitly shows children how skills are employed in the process of reading. Modeling, it seems to me, helps to counteract the widespread tendency to ask children to practice and apply skills they've never been taught.

For decoding, assume we are teaching -ing as a structural element and that the children already know how to recognize the words do, go, see, help, jump, and want. You might show the word do with doing beneath. After pointing out do as a word they have

read before, you might point to the base word in doing and indicate that sometimes letters are added to words to make new words. After pointing out and pronouncing the combination -ing you might then pronounce doing.

Next, you might present the sentence "She is helping father." Rather than now telling children to figure it out, model your thinking (aloud): you see helping includes the base word help and the inflectional ending -ing and that it all makes sense among the other words in the sentence (mention the specifics of the context).

In working with the word doing, you employed some modeling but mostly offered instruction. Working with helping, you employed modeling to extend the instruction and tie together previously taught skills and the new skill of identifying -ing as a common word ending. Now the children have the preparation which will allow them to apply the skill under your guidance and later to practice it.

In comprehension, let's consider the skill of predicting outcomes. Assume the instruction has focused on integrating information from the story with the reader's background of experience. Let's further assume that you and your pupils read a paragraph that describes a series of events that are commonly part of getting ready for school in the morning and then you ask the children to think about what is going to happen next. Rather than taking the children's hypotheses, if you employ modeling you would recount several things that happened (e.g., getting dressed, eating breakfast, gathering books and lunchbox)

and would indicate that you have associated these things in the past with getting ready for school and so it seems reasonable to predict that the child in the paragraph will next go off to school."

Pikulski, John. "Questions and Answers." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), pp. 831 - 2.

To state it simply, the modeling approach involves teachers modeling for students what they eventually want students to do independently. Based on classroom observation, Dolores Durkin found in her 1978 - 79 study that "teachers devote much of their reading class time to asking students questions about stories they have just read. Students, conversely, spend lots of time answering questions, or listening to classmates' answers." Durkin described this as assessment or testing, not teaching comprehension.

This study concluded that typical comprehension instruction consisted of mentioning the skill (saying just enough about an assignment so that students understand the formal requirements of the task, but stopping short of demonstrating how to solve the task cognitively or what to look for as clues for generating a solution), having students practice a skill via workbooks or worksheets, and then assessing whether skill mastery had been achieved.

In 1981, Durkin conducted a similar study of several basal manuals, looking for instances of comprehension instruction.

"She found that the dominant provisions were (1) lots of questions for students to answer about the selection they read and (2) lots of dittos and workbook pages for students to complete independently."

She found that "most of the basals' instructional directives consisted of a single sentence, perhaps something like "Tell the students that the main idea is the most important idea in the paragraph." Rarely was much in the way of modeling, guided practice, or substantive feedback suggested. Durkin felt "mentioning" better characterized what the manuals were offering in the way of instructional directives to teachers."

"In a more recent study, Durkin (1983) again observed how teachers at various grade levels used suggestions provided in the basal manuals. She found little or no time was spent on new vocabulary, background knowledge, or prereading questions, whereas considerable attention was given to comprehension assessment questions and written practice."

Pearson, P. David. "Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), pp. 729 -730.

Hahn, Amos L. "Teaching remedial students to be strategic readers and better comprehenders." The Reading Teacher, 39 (October 1985), pp. 72 - 3.

Appendix A continued

"There have been several investigations of how comprehension is actually taught in classrooms. After observing over 600 hours of reading instruction in grades 3 through 6, Durkin concluded:

Practically no comprehension instruction was seen. Comprehension assessment, carried on for the most part through interrogation, was common. Whether children's answers were right or wrong was the big concern....time spent in giving, completing, and checking assignments consumed a large part of the observed periods (1983, p. 318)."

In another study, it was found that "the majority of teachers in the study merely gave students the right answer without offering explanations or suggesting strategies by which students could reach the right answer.

For example, the following excerpt chronicles a teacher's attempt to instruct students in how to select an appropriate title for a story:

Teacher: Listen to the story I read you, and I will give you three possible titles. Listen really closely. See if you can pick out a good title for it. (Teacher reads the story aloud.) All right. Now here are some possibilities: "A Trip Downtown," "A New Shirt," "The Shirt That Didn't Fit." Of those three possibilities, which one goes best? Angela?

Angela: "A Trip, Downtown."

Teacher: Okay, Tom, what do you think?

Tom: "The New Shirt."

Teacher: Andy, what was your choice?

Andy: "The New Shirt."

Appendix A continued

Teacher: Susie, how about you?

Susie: "The Trip Downtown."

Teacher: Joe, how about you?

Joe: "The New Shirt."

Teacher: I think the girls decided on "The Trip Downtown," and the boys liked "The New Shirt." Mainly, what was the story about?

Child: A trip downtown.

Child: Getting a new shirt.

Teacher: Getting a new shirt, wasn't it?

Examples like this led researchers to conclude that a typical teacher "only asks for answers....., her responses to pupil answers do not create an understanding of either the main idea or strategy for figuring out the main idea. Apparently, students are expected to come up with both the answer and the strategy (on their own)." Although some students are unable to develop their own strategies, few teachers can spontaneously think up ways to help them (Durkin 1984), and teachers' guides attached to basal series do not provide the necessary guidance.

Gersten, Russel and Douglas Carnine. "Direct Instruction in Reading Comprehension." Educational Leadership, 43 (April 1986), pp. 70 - 71.

Appendix A continued

The recent report by the National Commission on Reading (Anderson et al.) concluded:

"Direct instruction needs to be distinguished from questioning, discussion, and guided practice. Direct instruction in comprehension means explaining the steps in a thought process that give birth to comprehension. It may mean that the teacher models a strategy by thinking aloud about how he or she is going about understanding a passage. The instruction includes information on why and when to use the strategy. Instruction of this type is the surest means of developing the strategic processing that was identified earlier as characteristic of skilled readers."

Anderson, Richard C., et. at. Becoming a Nation of Readers, Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984.

APPENDIX B

Roger Farr refers to this as "kid interest." His method is to ask students to read and react to stories in three different basal series. If there is only one book or students cannot read, the teacher reads to the children to determine their level of interest. Select similar stories or selections from three different basal programs. It is best to compare three similar fiction stories at the same time and then three nonfiction selections at another time. Any more than three would be too confusing for students and would take too long. In lieu of whole class discussion - this may be necessary in the lower grades - you can divide the class into small groups of three or four students and ask each group to determine which of the three publishers presents the material in the most interesting, understandable, and memorable way. Before beginning, of course, you must discuss what these terms mean and what qualities make something understandable or easy to remember (e.g. logical, easily identifiable structure - See Appendix X and ZA).

Conclusions should be presented and supporting evidence must be given. This project may take two to four periods to complete, but the thinking skills involved in this activity are well worth the time.

Muther, Connie. "How to Determine Which Textbooks Are Easiest to Read and Remember." Educational Leadership (October 1985), 88.

APPENDIX C

"Subject matter textbooks pose the biggest challenge for young readers being weaned from a diet of simple stories. Most selections in basal readers for the primary grades are stories. It is only common sense that children would be helped to make the transition to textbooks if early basal readers contained more high-quality non-fiction. Though there is little hard evidence on the point, anyone experienced in working with young readers knows that they can understand and do appreciate selections on such topics as animals, clouds, and how to make a kite, provided the material is presented in a coherent fashion."

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers, Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, p.67

APPENDIX D

"Readability formulas are playing a smaller and smaller role in the process of selecting textbooks, according to David Cody, a a project officer of the U.S. National Association of State Boards of Education. Where state officials adopt textbooks, 'I didn't talk to anyone in the 22 states who thought they were important,' Cody said. 'The general trend is that they're being used less and less.'

Jeanne Chall of Harvard (a developer of the Dale-Chall readability formula) says that although readability formulas can help you assess the difficulty of 'naturally written text,' they give false positives when people write texts to achieve certain scores."

Adapted from Simply Stated, the monthly newsletter of the Document Design Center, American Institutes for Research, 1055 Thomas Jefferson St., NW, Washington, DC 20007, No. 59, September 1985, pp. 1,4.

"Readability formulas are losing their textbook role." Journal of Reading , 29 (April 1986), 621.

APPENDIX E

"Obviously, as students advance they will have to learn to cope with texts in which both the structure and content are unfamiliar. Somewhat different demands are imposed by the two major types of texts the maturing reader faces - literature and subject matter textbooks.

With repect to literature, students must be able to understand increasingly complicated plots and characterization. They need to be able to cope with literature in which devices such as flashbacks and flash-forwards are frequent and subtle in realization. They need to be able to appreciate the moral or author's point as well as how the plot is resolved. Paricularly in the early grades, made-for-school stories are not as complex as the literature intended for children in the same grades on the shelves of libraries and bookstores. This fact has caused some authorities to wonder whether school reading programs adequately prepare children for genuine literature."

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, p.67.

"Real-life" reading includes:

short stories
plays
songs & poems
informational articles
legends & myths
letters & speeches
newspaper reports
advertisements, flyers, etc.
directions, recipes, etc.
biography and autobiography
historical fiction
vignettes from novels

APPENDIX F

The selections should not exploit the reciprocal relationship between word identification and comprehension. Each one helps the other. "After the earliest selections, primers should tell complete interesting stories." Phonics instruction and comprehension should be taught in tandem.

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, pp. 38, 57 - 8.

"From the very beginning children should be given all of the elements necessary for constructing meaning. This is important because reading at this early level is a new enterprise, and children must be made aware that reading is always directed toward meaning.

Each encounter with a reading selection should serve the dual goals of advancing children's skill at word identification and helping them to understand that reading is a process not simply of word recognition, but one of bringing ideas to mind. There is a reciprocal relationship between word identification and comprehension. The selections written for children to read in school should exploit this relationship."

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, p. 44.

Appendix F continued

The interactive model of reading postulates that "comprehension and decoding are defined interactively - and in terms of active processing of text information using one's own knowledge. The reader uses knowledge about the graphemes printed on the page (decoding) and knowledge that he or she has stored in the form of schemata accumulated from prior experience (comprehension) to construct an interpretation of the author's message. This distinction is crucial for instruction because we can no longer perceive the outcome of reading instruction as decoding or comprehension, nor can skills or strategies for decoding or comprehension be taught in isolation from the goal of constructing the author's message. A reading strategy is useful only if it results in a sensible interpretation."

"There was little understanding five years ago of the interaction between word recognition and comprehension..."

Duffy, Gerald G., Laura R. Roehler, and Jana Mason. Comprehension Instruction: Perspectives and Suggestions New York: Longman, 1984, pp. 302 - 3.

A teacher holding an interactive model of reading would encourage students to coordinate contextual cues with letter-sound cues in determining unrecognized words. Two kinds of processing occur simultaneously and then decisions are made using both kinds of information. The important aspect of the interactive model is that both kinds of information - graphophonemic knowledge (decoding) and

knowledge structures (the knowledge that readers have about the world and about how language works - semantic (meaning) and syntactic (grammar) knowledge) - are important. Readers focus on neither source of information exclusively. This model emphasizes that effective readers efficiently coordinate the two kinds of information.

"Considerable research indicates that this interactive view offers a more adequate explanation of what actually occurs in reading than do hierarchical subskill or bottom-up information processing models."

Jones, Linda L. "An interactive view of reading: Implications for the classroom." The Reading Teacher (April 1982) p. 773.

APPENDIX G

"There are essentially two approaches to phonics instruction - explicit phonics and implicit phonics. The following discussion will address only the major differences between the two approaches. In practice, there are similarities in the instructional strategies used in explicit and implicit phonics programs as well as differences among explicit programs and among implicit programs.

In explicit phonics instruction, the sounds associated with letters are identified in isolation and then "blended" together to form words. For example, the teacher may write the letter s on the chalkboard and tell the children that the letter makes the sound /s/, or point to the s in the word sat and say that it begins with /s/. During a typical explicit phonics lesson, the children will be asked to produce the sounds of letters that appear in isolation and in words.

A critical step in explicit phonics instruction is blending the isolated sounds of letters to produce words. To help children blend the sounds in the word sit,for example, a teacher may begin by pointing to each letter and asking the children to say the separate sounds, /s/ /i/ /t/. Next the teacher may model blending by extending the sounds /ssiit/ and then collapsing the sounds together to yield sit.

Blending may seem simple to an adult who already knows how to read, but in fact it is a difficult step for many children. Until a child gets over this hurdle, learning the sounds of individual letters and groups of letters will have diminished value. Research indicates that teachers who spend more than average amounts of time on blending produce larger than average gains on first - and

second-grade reading achievement tests. Regrettably, an analysis of published reading programs concluded that several incorporate procedures for teaching blending that are unlikely to be effective with many children.

In implicit phonics instruction, the sound associated with a letter is never supposed to be pronounced in isolation. Instead, in an implicit program the teacher might write a list of words on the board such as sand, soft, slip, and ask the children what all the words have in common. When the letter name s has been elicited the teacher would tell the children that, 'The letter s stands for the sound you hear at the beginning of sand, soft, and slip.' To figure out the sound of a letter in a word to be read, children receiving implicit phonics instruction may be told, 'This word begins with the letter s, so you know the word begins with the sound for s' or 'think about other words you know that begin with the same letter.'

Which works better, then, explicit or implicit phonics? When the criterion is children's year-to-year gains on standardized reading achievement tests, the available research does not permit a decisive answer, although the trend of the data favors explicit phonics.

In the judgment of the Commission, isolating the sounds associated with most letters and teaching children to blend the sounds of letters together to try to identify words are useful instructional strategies. These are the strategies of explicit phonics. However, research provides insufficient justification for strict adherence to either overall philosophy. Probably, the best strategy would draw from both

approaches. For example, the sounds of some letters such as r, which are especially difficult to produce correctly in isolation, might be introduced best using the implicit approach.

Further, letter-sound relationships should always be lavishly illustrated with words. These provide concrete exemplars for what can otherwise be confusing, abstract rules. When children are encouraged to think of other words they know with similar spellings when they encounter a word they cannot readily identify, they are probably helped to develop the adult strategy of decoding unknown words by analogy with ones that are known. This is a strong feature of the implicit approach, which is intrinsically word based. Of course, explicit phonics programs do illustrate letter-sound relationships with words, but the instruction in some of these programs would be strengthened if more attention were paid to systematically providing words to serve as concrete exemplars.

In summary, the purpose of phonics is to teach children the alphabetic principle. The goal is for this to become an operating principle so that young readers consistently use information about the relationship between letters and sounds and letters and meanings to assist in the identification of known words and to independently figure out unfamiliar words. Research evidence tends to favor explicit phonics. However, the 'ideal' phonics program would probably incorporate features from implicit phonics as well. The Commission believes that the approaches to phonics recommended in programs available today fall considerably short of the ideal, and we call for renewed efforts to improve the quality of instructional design, materials, and teaching strategies.

Appendix G continued

The right maxims for phonics are: Do it early. Keep it simple. Except in cases of diagnosed individual need, phonics instruction should have been completed by the end of the second grade."

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, pp. 39 - 43.

Why have phonics programs that teach speech sound-letter relationships in isolation (for example, /f/-ĕ/-d/ = fed) been relatively successful? "For over 40 years linguists have protested that isolating speech sounds was improper and contrary to the productive development of children's word recognition skills.

According to linguists, phonics instruction in which the sounds associated with letters are identified in isolation and then blended to form words (explicit phonics instruction) should not work well. The research does not appear to support this conclusion, however. Studies of the relative merit of teaching explicit phonics versus teaching speech sound-letter relationships within words (implicit phonics) reveals that 'the trend of the data favors explicit phonics.'

Linguists who have opposed the teaching of explicit phonics apparently have failed to understand the difficulty that young children have in identifying and reproducing (segmenting) separate speech sounds when these phonemes are heard only within words. Telling children to listen to the first sound in /fĕd/, for example, and to say another word that begins with this sound (implicit phonics), does not teach children to segment speech sounds, Instead, this direction presupposes

Appendix G continued

the child already knows what it intends to teach. Explicit phonics instruction makes no such presumption.

The dispute over whether phoneme-letter relationships should be taught as isolated units or within words, thankfully for now can be abandoned. Since there is no convincing evidence that children's hearing and producing approximate speech sounds impedes their development of phonics skills, teachers can feel free to give explicit phonics instruction. Unless future research tells us otherwise, there also seems no hazard in teachers' use of a combination of explicit and implicit phonics instruction."

Groff, Patrick. "The maturing of phonics instruction." The Reading Teacher, 39 (May 1986), pp. 920 - 923.

APPENDIX H

A number of reading programs, including ones not known for providing intensive phonics, try to teach too many letter-sound relationships and phonics instruction drags out over too many years. These programs seem to be making the dubious assumption that exposure to a vast set of phonics relationships will enable a child to produce perfect pronunciations of words. The more reasonable assumption is that phonics can help the child come up with approximate pronunciations - candidates that have to be checked to see whether they match words known from spoken language that fit in the context of the story being read.

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, p. 38.

APPENDIX I

"Teachers of beginning reading should present well-designed phonics instruction. Though most children today are taught phonics, often this instruction is poorly conceived. Phonics is more likely to be useful when children hear the sounds associated with most letters both in isolation and in words, and when they are taught to blend together the sounds of letters to identify words. In addition, encouraging children to think of other words they cannot readily identify, may help them develop the adult strategy of decoding unknown words by analogy with ones that are known. Phonics instruction should be kept simple and it should be completed by the end of the second grade for most children."

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, p. 118.

APPENDIX J

"No matter how children are introduced to words, very early in the program they should have experience with reading these words in meaningful texts.

Writing the first selections a child will read is a difficult balancing act. Ideally, the selections will be interesting (so that students will want to read them), comprehensible (so that students are able to understand them), and instructive (so that students will learn from them). But how can selections be made interesting when most of the children don't know how to read very many words? How can stories be comprehensible when they must be written with a severely limited set of words? How can selections be instructive so as to most effectively provide students with the opportunity to practice what they are being taught, and at the same time be interesting and comprehensible?

The reality is, that because the number of words that beginners can identify is still very limited, the few short sentences in the earliest school reading selections cannot, in themselves, tell complete stories. Meaning must be constructed not only from picture clues and information provided by the teacher or elicited from the children during discussion. This is one of the reasons why early reading lessons are so full of pictures and intervening discussion.

Despite these problems, the point is that from the very beginning children should be given all of the elements necessary for constructing meaning. This is important because reading at this early level is a new enterprise, and children must be

made aware that reading is always directed toward meaning. Is it possible to write interesting, comprehensible, and natural-sounding selections for young readers while at the same time constraining the vocabulary on the basis of letter-sound relationships? The answer is that it ought to be possible to come much closer to the ideal than the most widely-used programs do at the present time. The following guidelines may help: First, letter-sound relationships can be introduced in a sequence that would allow early use of as rich as possible a set of words while still exemplifying the alphabetic principle. Second, selections can include some useful irregular words without confusing children. Third, selections can include some regular words that embody letter-sound relationships that haven't been introduced yet, but are needed to make interesting, meaningful stories. Again, while it is essential that authors of primers have flexibility, a fairly high proportion of the words must conform to already-taught letter-sound relationships if phonics instruction is to have substantial value.

The emphasis during reading lessons should be on understanding and appreciating the content of the story. Lessons in which the children do little else but take turns reading the story, and the teacher does little else but correct reading errors, are ineffective."

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, pp. 43 - 44, 46 - 48, 56.

APPENDIX K

"Phonics instruction is just the first step toward the ultimate goal of fast, accurate word identification and fluent reading. What must occur is that students become so familiar with letter-sound relationships that words are identified automatically, that is, with little conscious attention. This will happen more readily when students encounter in the materials they are reading words that embody the letter-sound relationships that are being taught.

An analysis of eight basal reading series has indicated, however, that there is little connection between the phonics lessons and the reading selections in the primers of the best-selling programs. Phonics is poorly integrated because these programs introduce the most important and useful familiar words first. The problem is that there is an irregular relationship between the spelling and the pronunciation of many of the most useful, familiar words. Consider, for instance, said and come. If they were regular, said would rhyme with raid and come would rhyme with home.

There has been a traditional sequence for introducing letter-sound relationships in phonics lessons. Briefly, children are taught consonant sounds, then short vowel sounds, then long vowel sounds, in regular words such as bake and kite. When programs using this sequence seek perfect regularity between spelling & pronunciation, using only letter-sound relationships that have already been taught, the result can be selections for beginning readers comprised of deadly sentences such as, 'Dan had a tan fan.' Children do not

require this much regularity to master the alphabetic principle. One key to writing more meaningful selections for young readers may be more flexibility in the choice of the order for teaching letter-sound relationships. Relationships could be introduced in an order that makes accessible the largest possible vocabulary of useful words.

The important point is that a high proportion of the words in the earliest selections children read should conform to the phonics they have already been taught. Otherwise they will not have enough opportunity to practice, extend, and refine their knowledge of letter-sound relationships. However, a rigid criterion is a poor idea. Requiring that, say, 90 percent of the words used in a primer must conform to letter-sound relationships already introduced would destroy the flexibility needed to write interesting, meaningful stories. What the field of reading does not need is another index that gets applied rigidly. What the field does need is an understanding of the concepts at work.

Is it possible to write interesting, comprehensible, and natural-sounding selections for young readers while at the same time constraining the vocabulary on the basis of letter-sound relationships? The answer is that it ought to be possible to come much closer to the ideal than the most widely-used programs do at the present time. The following guidelines may help: First, letter-sound relationships can be introduced in a sequence that would allow early use of as rich as possible a set of words while still exemplifying the alphabetic principle. Second,

Appendix K continued

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Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, pp. 46 - 8.

APPENDIX L

Schema means the general knowledge structures or concepts that you bring to the text when reading. Much has been written in the research about the important role that prior knowledge or background concepts play in reading comprehension. "Schema theory highlights the importance of building and activating background knowledge whenever teachers want to insure that students have a reasonable chance of understanding and retaining information from content area texts. Schema theory certainly has implications for basal reader instruction, but its greatest implications may be for content area reading materials."

Pikulski, John J. "Questions and Answers." The Reading Teacher, 39 (April 1986) pp. 879 - 880.

"Considerable research has shown that comprehension depends not only on our knowledge of the language, but also our knowledge of the world. A logical implication is that reading instruction should place emphasis on developing background (relevant schemata) for reading."

Jones, Linda L. "An interactive view of reading: Implications for the classroom." The Reading Teacher, 35 (April 1982), 774.

Appendix L continued

Researchers have demonstrated that readers' background experiences profoundly influence their interpretation of the text. "What we begin with - the reader - is perhaps the most important part of the transaction. The information and perceptions readers bring with them to the reading process can literally make or break the experience."

Crafton, Linda K. "Comprehension before, during, and after reading." The Reading Teacher, 36 (December 1982), 294.

Thomas and Robinson have stated, "We believe that time spent getting students ready to read may be the most effective means of improving their comprehension." Watch to see how well the Teacher's Guide does this.

Thomas, Ellen Lamar and H. Alan Robinson. Improving Reading in Every Class. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1982, p.222.

"Meaningful learning occurs when the learner attempts to relate new information to what he or she already knows. This prior knowledge or prior experience is essential for comprehension of the printed word." The importance of activating the reader's schema is discussed in detail in this article.

Thelen, Judith N. "Vocabulary instruction and meaningful learning." Journal of Reading, 29 (April 1986), pp. 603 - 9.

APPENDIX M

"Prereading questions. In addition to guided reading questions, researchers have examined prereading questions intended to build background for story comprehension. Here considerable evidence suggests that it matters a great deal what kind of questions we use: A set for predicting, relating text to prior knowledge, and evaluating predicted outcomes is superior to more literal/factual orientation." Several research studies have found that adding a prereading set for invoking relevant prior knowledge and predicting what will happen in a story coupled with discussion of why it is important to do so results in even better inferential comprehension and even helps literal comprehension.

Pearson, P. David. "Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), 727 - 8.

APPENDIX N

You can analyze whether this is done by reading a story and deciding on a few (2 - 4) key ideas which represent the theme or moral, the main character's basic problem, or a key action, event, or feeling. See if these kinds of questions are asked: "Have you ever...?"or "What do you think (character) will do..?" Are you encouraged to spend some time discussing these kinds of questions prior to reading the story?

Hansen, Jane and Ruth Hubbard. "Poor Readers Can Draw Inferences." The Reading Teacher, 37 (March 1984), pp. 586 - 9.

P. David Pearson states that readers should be encouraged to relate the story to prior experiences and then be encouraged to predict what story characters will do in similar circumstances.

Pearson, P. David. "Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), 728.

APPENDIX O

"Comprehension: after reading - As students continue to think about prose after it's read, there are procedures which can further this phase of learning to help solidify the information and to make it an integral part of their cognitive network. This stage of comprehension is the one we've tended to neglect. Even though teachers are frequently encouraged to consider postreading activity as part of reading to learn, it's often treated cursorily at best and is usually aimed at comprehension assessment rather than a way to influence students' understanding. The classroom scenario too often takes the form of students reading, teachers questioning and then moving on.

We have to ask ourselves what intellectual purpose is served when students are asked to answer questions unique to one text. It's using the information learned from reading that counts. What is the value of asking students questions when they could be generating their own questions determining what else they would like to know about a topic and where and how they can find it.

A particular topic may come up as part of a basal series, but rather than being merely a lesson to be taught and completed, it becomes the foundation for student generated learning. It becomes an exciting topic to be pursued through reading, writing, reporting. and sharing.

The focus, then, should rightly be on expanding, sharing, and exchanging information as we consider comprehension as an extended process rather than a point in time. This phase of comprehension can no longer be ignored if our goal is real learning and language

growth.

Extending classroom learning - That learning takes time is an accepted premise, but too often students are allowed only a glimpse of a topic before they are asked to consider something else. Teachers who feel satisfied that real learning has occurred when students are able to answer questions immediately after reading or when they can perform well on a test may need to reconsider the nature of learning and comprehension."

Crafton, Linda K. "Comprehension before, during, and after reading." The Reading Teacher, 36 (December, 1982), 296.

What Do You Think? "A reader's ability to link the contents of a reading selection to what he or she already knows is a significant element in comprehension. While reading, a skilled reader imagines, judges, and even thinks of reasons for his or her opinions. 'What Do You Think?' gives students an opportunity to relate the contents of a selection they have read to what they already know.

Each of the following questions is designed to get an interesting discussion going. At its best, this routine will result in a satisfying session in which students offer their opinions, comment on the contributions of their peers, and share their prior experiences and feelings. The discussions need not be long, but they are very important. It is especially important that students perceive them as genuine discussions, not as teacher quizzes."

Appendix O continued

Examples of "What Do You Think?" questions are:

1. What did John's grandmother want to help John do? Do you think her idea worked? Explain your answer.
2. What would it be like to move to a new place where you didn't know anyone? Suppose you wanted people to notice you in a special way. What would you do?

Aulls, Mark W. and Michael F. Graves. Desert Magic Teaching Guide. New York: Scholastic, Inc., 1985, pp.22 - 23/

APPENDIX P

"A small, but growing amount of research shows that elementary students' reading performance can be improved when they receive direct, explicit instruction in how, when, and why to employ specific learning strategies."

Babbs, Patricia J. "Monitoring cards help improve comprehension." The Reading Teacher, 38 (November 1984), 200.

"All instruction on strategies should prepare students to use the strategy while reading in order to create meaning. Students must become aware of what strategies are available for understanding and remembering text. We encourage instruction that sets out to make students consciously aware of how skills and strategies work in solving real reading problems and have as a desired outcome that students understand what they are doing when they use a skill to solve a reading problem."

Duffy, Gerald G., Laura R. Roehler, and Jana Mason. Comprehension Instruction: Perspectives and Suggestions. New York: Longman, 1984, 31.2.

APPENDIX Q

"Provide feedback and correctives - During guided practice, checking for understanding, or any recitation or demonstration, how should a teacher respond to a student's answer? If a student is correct and confident, the teacher can simply ask another question or give a short statement of praise (e.g., 'very good') while maintaining the momentum of the practice. However, if the student is correct but hesitant, it is important to tell the student that the answer is correct. In such cases, it is also useful to give 'process feedback.' Process feedback refers to the teacher saying, 'Yes, that's right because...' and then proceeding to re-explain the process one goes through to get the correct answer. Such reteaching or process feedback gives learners the additional explanation that is sometimes needed when they are still unsure.

When a student has made an error, it is appropriate for the teacher to simplify the question, provide hints, or reteach the material. The important point is that errors should not go uncorrected; it is inappropriate simply to give the correct answer and move on.

Researchers have found that instruction was more effective when students (a) received immediate feedback on their examination and (b) had to do further study and take another test when their quiz scores did not reach the criterion. Both points seem relevant to this discussion: students learn better with feedback - as immediate as possible - and errors should be corrected before they become habitual."

Rosenshine, Barak V. "Synthesis of Research on Explicit Teaching." Educational Leadership, 43 (April 1986), p. 67.

APPENDIX R

"There is a psychological generalization which applies to all learners and is related to the learning task. At the initial stages of any learning task, wise teacher guidance will greatly increase the rate and degree of that learning. As a student gains proficiency with a particular learning, guidance should be withdrawn gradually so the student learns to depend on himself and is able to function without guidance. If we think about it, this is only common sense. If we wish to learn something entirely new, we'll learn faster if we get some expert help at the beginning. After we begin to be comfortable with our new learning, we need to work on our own to become proficient."

Hunter, Madeline. Teach More - Faster. California: TiP Publications, 1984, p. 63.

Here are some generalizations that apply to transfer:

1) Transfer is generated by the similarity of the situation in which something is learned and the situation to which that learning may transfer. The more similar two situations are, the more learning that will transfer from one to the other. If we want to maximize transfer, we should make the two learning situations as similar as possible. The teacher must encourage students to create perceivable similarities if she wishes learning from one situation to transfer to another. Encouraging children to think of other words that have similar spellings when they encounter a word they cannot readily identify can aid decoding. Because of this, letter sound relationships

should always be lavishly illustrated with words.

2) Transfer of learning is generated by an association of two learnings even though they may be very different. One learning will tend to transfer to another when for some reason these two learnings are associated by the learner. Verbaling specifying the association of one learning with another is a very efficient way to emphasize an association so that learning from one situation will transfer to another. A focus question such as "Remember how we got tricked by propaganda last week? Read this carefully!" will encourage a child to transfer skills of critical reading to the present assignment.

3) Original learning should be taught so it is well learned. Adequate learning requires that we return to a concept many times and see it in many differing situations before it is well enough understood to transfer to other situations where it is appropriate. The more completely we learn one task, the more likely that mastery is to transfer and facilitate learning another task. As a result, the time it takes to learn the second task is substantially decreased. We should complete one learning to an appropriate degree before introducing another related learning. A student should accomplish one learning before going on to another.

4) Transfer is generated by the identification of essential and unvarying elements which signal that a past learning has relevance and is applicable to a present situation. To achieve this skill, we should teach:

a. categorization

Appendix R continued

b. identification of critical attributes. If you wanted to eliminate a learner's confusion between "was" and "saw" you would have him look at the first letter because the critical discriminator here is the order of the letters from left to right. The student must learn to focus on the critical attribute of a word - the first letter.

c. predifferentiation training - focusing on a simpler part of a more complex whole

d. generalizations - Generalizations are useful because they provide valid information which can be transferred to anything that belongs to that category (Mammals have mammary glands.)

Hunter, Madeline. Teach For Transfer. California: TiP Publications, 1986.

APPENDIX S

The necessity for exposing students to various examples is becoming more and more apparent.

"The real power of teaching strategies comes when students can build broad mental maps that integrate a wide range of examples. Then students learn more than the particular lessons. They learn different ways of organizing and relating information.

This highly structured approach goes against the grain of what many educators feel comprehension instruction should be - an opportunity for students to spontaneously develop and articulate perceptions. Classroom observations, however, reveal that elementary (and probably middle school) teachers need guidance in teaching students to make sense of what they read. The research demonstrates that the type of questions, the detailed step-by-step breakdowns, and the extensive practice with a range of examples illustrated in our three studies will significantly benefit students' comprehension. The next step is integrating these procedures into reading series and into teacher training programs."

Gersten, Russell and Douglas Carnine. "Direct Instruction in Reading Comprehension." Educational Leadership, 43 (April 1986), p. 77.

"Research on concept attainment suggests that students are likely to learn concepts if they understand the domain and critical features of the concept, and are presented with examples and non-examples."

Jones, Beau Fly. "Quality and Equality Through Cognitive Instruction." Educational Leadership, 43 (April 1986), p. 7

Appensix S continued

"Guided practice could consist of the teacher giving examples and having the students identify them and explain their answers, and later having the students create their own examples."

Rosenshine, Barak V. "Synthesis of Research on Explicit Teaching." Educational Leadership, 43 (April 1986), p. 66.

APPENDIX SS

A careful examination of current basal reading lessons reveals a potential flaw in the sequence of lesson activities.

"Although the story is the presumed context for applying skill instruction, the typical basal sequence has skill instruction following the story. Duffy and Roehler (1984) recently punctuated this fact as follows: 'When comprehension is dealt with, it is after the fact: teachers frequently teach comprehension skills after the students have read, and perhaps misunderstood, a story. They do this partly because it's recommended in most basal text-books.'

Skill instruction should occur prior to reading and not after the fact, so that children will grasp the fact that reading skills should be applied to the text of their reading. There are two rules for this:

1) Teach reading skills prior to the reading and (2) relate reading skill instruction explicitly to the story.

For example, in 'Stone Soup', the comprehension skill of predicting outcomes can be easily approached through posing questions about the story prior to reading it, rather than teaching this skill in isolated paragraphs as suggested in the manual. In this way, the skill instruction and application of the skill are explicitly related to the story.

The second skill in 'Stone Soup' involved decoding words in context. Like the previous skill, it can be taught in the story context rather than with the isolated sentences provided in the teacher's edition. Here again, skill application is encouraged in the true context of the reading act and not in isolated drills."

Appendix SS continued

A comparison of lesson procedures

Traditional basal lesson	Reconciled reading lesson
1. Vocabulary introduction	1. Enrichment activities to build background and introduce vocabulary
2. Introduce the story	2. Skill lessons explicitly related to the story
3. Guided silent reading	3. Questions asked to alert selective attention
4. Questions and discussion	4. Guided silent reading
5. Skill lessons and workbooks	5. Assessment of story comprehension and skills learning
6. Enrichment activities	6. Vocabulary assessment

Duffy, Gerald and Laura Roehler. "Explicitness is Key to Reading Instruction." Communication Quarterly, 6 (Winter-Spring 1984), p. 1.

Reutzel, D. Ray. "Reconciling schema theory and the basal reading lesson." The Reading Teacher, 39 (November 1985) p. 195 - 196.

APPENDIX T

Bloom's

Taxonomy of Thinking Levels

Level	Cue Words
KNOWLEDGE Recall Remembering previously learned material	Observe Repeat Label/Name Cluster List Record Match Memorize Recall Recount Sort Outline/Format Stated Define
COMPREHENSION Translate Grasping the meaning of material	Recognize Locate Identify Restate Paraphrase Tell Describe Report Express Explain Review Cite Document/Support Summarize Precise/Abstract
APPLICATION Generalize Using learned material in new & concrete situations	Select Use Manipulate Sequence Organize Imitate Show/Demonstrate Frame How to Apply Dramatize Illustrate Test Out/Solve Imagine/Information known
ANALYSIS Break Down/Discover Breaking down material into its component parts so that it may be more easily understood	Examine Classify Distinguish/ Differentiate Outline/No Format Given Map Relate To Characterize Compare/Contrast (Similarities/Differences) Question Research Interpret Debate/Defend Refute Infer Conclude/Draw Conclusions Analyze

Appendix T continued

Level	Cue Words	
SYNTHESIS Compose Putting material together to form a new whole	Propose Plan Compose Formulate Design	Construct Emulate Imagine/Speculate Creat Invent
EVALUATION Judge Judging the value of material for a given purpose	Compare-Pro/Cons Prioritize/Rank Judge Decide Rate Evaluate Criticize Argue	Justify Convince Persuade Assess Value Predict

Olson, Carol Booth. "Fostering critical thinking skills through writing." Educational Leadership (November 1984), p. 33.

Appendix T continued

Analysis is the fourth level; questions involving analysis divide the literature into component parts, asking the reader to study each one. Questions which center on sentence or paragraph structure, pattern of idea development, word choice, and figurative language all ask for analysis, as do those which ask for distinguishing between characters, diagramming plot, or comparing two themes.

The highest level is evaluation; Questions that evaluate ask the reader to make a judgment about the work, to form an opinion based on set standards using the understanding derived from studying the other levels. A student can only answer these kinds of quesions if he or she can answer questions at all other levels: s/he can put in rank order the more powerful of three characters only if s/he has studied each character fully, from physical description (knowledge), personality traits (comprehension), comparison of the literary characters to real persons (application) to how the character relates to other characters in the book (analysis).

Lindquist, Alexa Ann. "Applying Bloom's taxonomy in writing reading guides for literature." Journal of Reading, 25 (May 1982), 770.

APPENDIX U

"The generalization that guides us to speedy learning is mass the practice at the beginning of learning. This means make your practice periods frequent and closely spaced...."

"This principle of massing practice at the beginning of learning applies to all material, not just merely drill or rote memorization. If you want your group to rapidly learn some new concepts, introduce them (with examples to provide that essential meaning), review the essential ideas at the end of the period, come back to them again during the day, and review again just before going home. You have massed practice by providing four opportunities in one day. Don't think the learning is complete. The next day you will need to provide a couple of opportunities to deal with those same concepts, hopefully with some fresh examples. Again the following day you will need to work with them. You might skip the next day but be sure you return to those concepts on the fifth day. If that day is Friday, you will automatically skip the next two days but return to that learning for sure on Monday. You will probably need to practice only a couple of times this week and only once the following week. As material is well learned, you can leave longer and longer blocks of time between practice periods which is labeled as 'distributing practice' Massing practice at the initial stages of learning makes for fast learning. Distributing practice after material is learned makes for long remembering. Knowing this psychological principle should help you resist the 'once over lightly' temptation that sabotages much of our learning effort.

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Appendix U continued

The reason for scheduling massed practice at the beginning of learning is easily perceivable if you inspect learning and forgetting curves. You will find that the greatest "fall out" of forgetting occurs immediately after you stop practicing, and it is more extensive with material that is not well learned. Therefore, in the beginning stages of learning, the 'fall' is considerable. You need to practice again quickly before learning goes back to the 'zero' point. As material is better learned, it is not so susceptible to forgetting and an occasional practice period will keep it up to an acceptable point."

Hunter, Madeline. Teach More - Faster. California: TiP Publications, 1986, p. 92, p. 95.

Please note that when I discussed practice theory with Madeline Hunter, she told me that massed practice is when there is no time space in between - all the practice occurs in one lesson. If there is more practice of the same skill after lunch (There was a time break in between the first practice.),this is considered distributive practice. Any time lapse in between designates succeeding practice as distributive practice.

In addition, you should keep in mind that massed means amount of attention or time to the learning task, not the number of work-book pages, etc. The quality of the instructional practice materials is very important. This is not a simple issue of "just giving the students more!"

APPENDIX V

"Reading and writing should not be separated in the curriculum." Researchers report on the positive influences of one on the other for schoolchildren. Reading and writing experiences tend to improve each other. Reading and writing must be integrated because of their mutual dependence and meaning must be allowed to play its central role in the development of both processes.

Wilson, Marilyn J. "A review of recent research on the integration of reading and writing." The Reading Teacher, 34 (May 1981), 901.

P. David Pearson discussed the important changes he recommends we make in the way we teach reading comprehension. He says, "Were I to make a prediction about the single most important change in language instruction that will take place in the next decade, it would be that we no longer separate instruction in reading and writing."

Pearson, P. David "Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), 736.

Some interesting findings were discovered by Gloria T. Blatt and Lois Matz Rosen as they studied the connections between the reading experience and writing. Although they taught literature to upper grade students, their observations about the benefits of writing about what you read can be applied to all grade levels, I believe. Although they speak about literature, I think responding to any story can have the same beneficial effects. They found "asking students to write about their reactions to the selections helps them become

Appendix V continued

more personally involved with the text." Research supports the fact that a reader must feel personally involved with literature for it to be meaningful, for it to be "an experience in the life of the reader." Blatt and Rosen believe writing can powerfully enhance the personal literary experience of each reader. When you ask students to write in response to their reading, you are asking them to examine the story more closely than they might normally, which helps them to understand it better and become more involved in it. Students can respond personally to aspects of the reading that were meaningful to them (personal involvement; e.g. Write an answer to one of these questions: Has anything similar ever happened to you? Are any of the characters similar to anyone you know?). Students can analyze the text in writing; for instance, they can write an answer to the question: What is the poem about?

Blatt, Gloria T. and Lois Matz Rosen. "The writing response to literature." Journal of Reading, 28 (October 1984), pp. 8 - 11.

APPENDIX W

Pearson and Johnson refer to pronoun referents as anaphoric relations.

The Random House Dictionary of the English Language (1966, p. 53) defines anaphora as, "the use of a word as a regular grammatical substitute for a preceding word or group of words...." Anaphora, therefore, includes all the basic personal pronouns (I, me, we, us, you, he, she, it, they, him, her, them) and demonstrative pronouns (this, that, these, those). But it also includes pro-verbs (not proverbs), such as do, can, will, would, could, should, has and many nouns which serve the function of pronouns.

They cite research which states that intermediate-grade students are only somewhere between 60 percent and 80 percent accurate in assigning antecedents to anaphora. These findings suggest that (1) systematic instruction in anaphoric stuctures is probably necessary, and (2) some students and some structures will require more attention than others.

Some instructional activities that will help children deal with anaphoric relations are:

1. Question probes that allow students to practice relating anaphora to their antecedents (words they refer to).
   (e.g. What does the word animal refer to? Who is tall and lovely?)
2. Antecedent matching. A paragraph is given. Children are asked to state the noun to which the underlined pronoun refers.
3. Anaphora substitution. A paragraph is given. Children are asked to substitute a pronoun for the noun underlined.

Pearson, P. David and Dale J. Johnson. Teaching Reading Comprehension. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978, pp 122 - 3.

APPENDIX X

Organizational Patterns: Well-organized expository text not only contributes to comprehension, but also facilitates the total amount recalled after reading a text.

Some fundamental patterns are:

1) simple-listing - a listing of items or ideas where the order of presentation of the items is not significant;
2) comparison/contrast - a description of similarities and differences between two or more things;
3) temporal sequence - a sequential relationship between ideas or events considered in terms of the passage of time;
4) cause/effect - an interaction between at least two ideas or events, one considered a cause or reason and the other an effect or result;
5) problem/solution - similar to the cause/effect pattern in that two factors interact, one citing a problem and the other a solution to that problem.

Osborn, Jean H., Beau Fly Jones, and Marcy Stein. "The Case for Improving Textbooks." Educational Leadership, 42 (April 1985), p. 12.

APPENDIX Y

Some Signal Words

Simple Listing

to begin with
first
next
then
finally
and
also
another
in addition
furthermore
plus
moreover
as well as
several
besides
too

second

after that
likewise
similarly
again

Time Order

first
afterward
after
at the same time
thereafter
meanwhile
now
since
immediately
hereafter
at length
on (date)
not long after
until

in the first place
then
before
last
in retrospect
finally
later
as
previously
at last
following
when

Comparison/Contrast

both
but
as well as
not only
either...or
similarly
on the other hand
in spite of
although
however

but also
while
unless
yet

Appendix Y continued

Cause/Effect

because
therefore
consequently
as a result
this led to ——→ thus

nevertheless
accordingly
if...then
due to
since
so that

APPENDIX ZA

"Research with young children reveals that the more closely a story fits an expected structure, the easier it is for a reader to grasp and remember the important ideas. Stories that conform to a 'good' story structure make it easier for readers to connect the parts of the story.

Regrettably, many stories for the early grades do not have a predictable structure. This is especially true of the stories in primers and first-grade basal readers. In fact, many of these selections do not actually tell a story. This makes the selections less comprehensible, less interesting, and probably slows progress in learning to read.

A pervasive fault is that stories written or edited for use in the primary grades do not give enough insight into characters' goals, problems, motives, plans, and feelings. This can make the plot difficult to figure out. The following paragraph about a raccoon is from a second-grade story:

> Because he (the raccoon) was still hungry, he started to look for something more to eat. Just as he started to look, he heard something coming down the road. Two men came along on their horses. The raccoon hid in back of a tree.

As this paragraph is written, the raccoon's motivation for hiding may not be clear, and the animal's action may seem arbitrary. If the last sentence is changed to, 'Because wild animals are afraid of people, the raccoon hid in back of a tree.' the paragraph becomes easier for a child to understand."

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, p.66-67.

Appendix ZA continued

"Story grammars have been developed to specify the relationships among the story elements that underlie narratives. One story grammar describes story elements in the following order: setting, characters, conflict, resolution. The contention of a large group of people doing research about learning from text is that students will learn more readily from textbooks with stories that follow common story grammars. Studies done with large numbers of students of differing ages conclude that when story content is organized according to a well-known story grammar, memory for the story is better than when the presentation of these elements is altered."

Osborn, Jean H., Beau Fly Jones, and Marcy Stein. "The Case for Improving Textbooks." Educational Leadership, 42 (April 1985), p. 13.

APPENDIX ZB

Researchers have examined teacher's manual questions and have found "a random barrage of questions that do not cohere with one another. They do not form a line of questions to lead children through the main crises and events of a story so they can build their own coherent representation of meaning."

It has been suggested that teachers develop an outline of important ideas in the story. This is called a story map.

"A story map specifies the main character's problem in the story and then attempts to solve that problem, leading eventually to a resolution, and perhaps a moral or lesson about life.

Teachers should develop questions that elicit major components of the story map. Questions that elicit either too general or too specific responses should not be used during initial guided reading discussions. The flow of the story from inception to resolution, serves as the paramount criterion for question selection or creation.

Translated into practical issues regarding basal reading questions, this analysis suggests that in addition to developing questions that go beyond the literal text, guided reading questions should be limited to eliciting only those details that drive the flow of the story, that is, problems, goals, attempts to solve problems, character's reactions, resolution, and theme (or moral).

Questions that focus student attention on salient story elements elicit better comprehension and recall of the story in which such questions are embedded as well as better recall of new stories for which no questions are asked. Apparently, the systematic application of such a framework for story comprehension

Appendix ZB continued

helps students develop their own frameworks for understanding stories; such a framework may well serve as a strategic device for understanding and recalling what is read."

Pearson, P. David. "Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), p. 727.

APPENDIX AA

Literal reading is the acquisition of stated ideas and information. (p.211)

Inferential or interpretive reading involves implied reading or "reading between (and beyond) the lines." The understanding comes from the readers' own knowledge base, and from information presented by the author. This kind of reading requires the reader to read for deeper meanings and requires him to do more than receive surface messages. It is the reader's responsibility to think about what other ideas the messages might convey. (p.230)

Evaluative or critical reading occurs after the reader has grasped the writer's ideas or information. Students are expected to evaluate statements or ideas. (p.239)

Critical reading involves making judgements about what the author is saying or what characters are doing. It involves forming an opinion about what the author is saying, defending or justifying a choice or solution.

Karlin, Robert. Teaching Elementary Reading. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1975.

Levels of thinking in comprehending text.

1. Literal: reading the lines as they are stated, readers recall or restate facts in their own words. Tasks include: listing, recalling, naming, identifying, locating, and labeling.

Appendix AA continued

2. Interpretive: emphasis is on thoughtful reading between the lines, exercising judgment in selecting and relating relevant information to produce a conclusion. Tasks include: classifying, outlining, summarizing, problem solving, inferring comparing, and contrasting.
3. Evaluative (critical): passing personal judgment on the truth or accuracy of the material. Is it factual? verifiable? adequate? appropriate? worthy? acceptable? Based on what criteria?
4. Creative: going beyond the author's message to form personal extentions. Tasks include: exploring similar problems, finding similarities in unrelated material and contrasts in similar material.

Cognitive Levels and Comprehension Skills

Cognitive Levels	Comprehension Skills
Literal	1. determine details when explicitly stated 2. find main ideas when explicitly stated 3. follow directions 4. determine sequence
Interpretive	5. identify cause/effect 6. make inferences 6. describe character 8. explain relationships 9. anticipate outcomes 10. recognize author's tone, mood, intent.

Appendix AA continued

Evaluative/Critical	11. compare and contrast 12. draw conclusions, make generalizations 13. make value judgments based on own stated criteria 14. appreciate
Creative	15. form own extensions 16. synthesize 17. explore similar problems 18. find similarities in unrelated materials 19. examine possible consequences 20. suggest new solutions

Tonjes, Marian J. and Miles V. Zintz. Teaching Reading/Thinking/ Study Skills in Content Classrooms. Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1981, pp. 179-180.

Dolores Durkin, in her 1981 study of teachers' basal manuals discovered that a lot of space was devoted to literal-level story questions in search of single-correct answers.

Pearson, P. David, "Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), 726.

APPENDIX BB

"No piece of advice about questioning has been repeated more often than the proscription, 'Don't ask too many detail questions.' For instance, if a story were to say that Sally was wearing a red dress, teachers may be warned against asking about the color of her dress. This advice is incomplete, however. The question is perfectly sensible if the color of Sally's dress figures in the plot. A more complete statement about questions is that, as a general rule, they should be formulated to motivate children's higher-level thinking. When questions about details are asked, usually they should be links in a chain of questions that lead to an inference about a hard-to-understand part of the passage or an understanding of the selection as a whole."
(Detail questions are literal level questions.)

Anderson, Richard C., et. al. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984, p. 56.

APPENDIX CC

"Nowhere in a basal textbook would we find a statement to the effect that one word is just as easy or difficult to learn as any other word, yet an examination of basal teacher's manuals reveals an overwhelming sameness in the instructional suggestions given for individual vocabulary words. Suggestions tend to be the same from word to word, lesson to lesson, and from one reading level to the next. This occurs even though individual words have characteristics requiring variations in instructional procedures.

Numerous characteristics affect the relative difficulty of word learning. The concreteness or image-evoking value of words has a strong effect on the ability to learn the word. Consequently, children learn words like elephant more easily than words like freedom. Words that are highly relevant to children's experiences are easier for them to learn than words unrelated to their experiences. School is a word with such relevance; senate generally is not. Thus we expect most beginning readers to find the word school easier to learn than senate. Nouns, verbs, and other words that carry meaning in sentences usually are easier than are prepositions, connectives, pronouns, or the wh- adjectives that provide sentence structure.

A strong program of vocabulary instruction will accommodate for differences in word difficulty. Successful strategies for teaching abstract or environmentally remote words will likely contain more elaboration of word meanings, additional effort directed at relatiing words to children's experiences, increased exposure to the words in varying contexts, and more review over longer periods than would strategies for teaching concrete, environmentally relevant words."

Sorenson, Nancy L. "Basal reading vocabulary instruction: A critique and suggestions." The Reading Teacher, 39 (October 1985), pp. 80 - 81.

APPENDIX D

"Since word meaning, or vocabulary, is strongly related to reading comprehension, then vocabulary instruction must be meaningful. Yet many content teachers believe that they develop word recognition skills, or preteach technical vocabulary, when they require students to look up new words in the dictionary or glossary and use each word in a sentence. This activity tends to be meaningless and often results in rote learning and rapid forgetting."

Thelen, Judith N. "Vocabulary instruction and meaningful learning." Journal of Reading, 29 (April 1986), 603.

"We must refocus our vocabulary efforts on techniques emphasizing semantic elaboration (e.g. semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis) and semantic fit (where a word fits in children's semantic repetoire; that is what it means to own a word - to know what it is like and how it differs from other words that a child knows) rather than definition and usage. Several studies point to the advantage of a fullblown concept development approach to vocabulary over a more conventional definition and sentence approach."

Pearson, P. David. "Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), 729.

Appendix DD continued

There are three principles that characterize effective vocabulary instruction. Principle One is explained here.

Principle 1: Give both context and definition

"A person who 'knows' a word can be thought of as having two types of knowledge about words that we know - definitional information and contextual information.

Definitional information can be defined as knowledge of the logical relations between a word and other known words, as in a dictionary definition. In teaching, definitional information can be provided through definitions, but also through synonyms, antonyms, prefixes, suffixes, roots, classification, etc.

Contextual information can be defined as knowledge of the core concept the word represents and how that core concept is changed in different contexts. For example, the word smoke means something slightly different when one 'smokes' a regular cigarette than when one 'smokes' a pipe or one 'smokes' a marijuana cigarette. In all three cases, the definition of smoke is the same, but the smoking action is subtly different. Contextual information is derived from exposure to a word in context, usually a sentence, but for some concrete words a picture or demonstration could provide the context as well.

Therefore, in order to 'know' a word, one must not only know its definitional relations with other words, but also be able to interpret its meaning in a particular context.

Appendix DD continued

For the purposes of improving comprehension, it is important that both types of information are provided. When only definitional information is given students, as in a synonym drill ('Debris means trash. What does debris mean?'), the vocabulary instruction had no significant effect on comprehension. The strongest effects were found when there was a balanced emphasis between definitional and contextual information, or when the balance was tipped toward contextual information (or giving several different exposures to a word in context while only mentioning the definition).

In other words, vocabulary instruction improves comprehension only when both definitions and context are given, and has the largest effect when a number of different activities or examples using the word in context are used. When only the definition is given, without any examples of the word in context, or when the word is used only in context without the definition, the effects on comprehension are nonsignificant.

In practice this means that giving students a list of words and their definitions to memorize will probably not have much of an effect on comprehension, at least not by itself. Materials which provide a definition (or synonym, etc.) plus several examples of the word correctly used in context, on the other hand, are likely to improve comprehension."

Stahl, Steven A. "Three principles of effective vocabulary instruction." Journal of Reading, 29 (April 1986), pp. 663 - 664.

APPENDIX EE

"In typical basal vocabulary lessons the teacher introduces a printed word, usually in sentence context. Students read the word and attempt to explain its meaning or use it in a sentence of their own. In some basal manuals this sequence is followed by a review exercise. Often, this is where vocabulary teaching stops. Comprehension questions, story follow-up activities, workbooks, and worksheets - logical devices for reviewing or broadening vocabulary concepts - are often focused on other objectives.

This one-time only presentation of vocabulary words smacks of mentioning, which Durkin (1978-79) considers a dominant characteristic of classroom reading instruction.

Concepts are built through elaboration over time. A program oriented toward vocabulary as a component of comprehension instruction will encourage elaboration of these concepts in subsequent lessons and readings. A program's stength should be measured by the depth of treatment given to conceptually difficult words, rather than by an overall count of the words presented.

Sorenson, Nancy L. "Basal reading vocabulary instruction. A critique and suggestions." The Reading Teacher, 39 (October 1985), p. 83.

This article discussed three principles that characterized effective vocabulary instruction. Principle 3 is discussed here: Principle 3: Give multiple exposures - "A third factor which was important for vocabulary instruction to affect comprehention was the number of times the student was exposed to the word and what

Appendix EE continued

types of information was given each time. Providing the student with multiple repetitions of the same information about each word's meaning ('drill and practice') and providing the student with multiple exposures to the word in different contexts or settings ('breadth of knowledge') appear to have similar effects and both significantly improve comprehension. Providing only one or two exposures to a word, on the other hand, seems not to affect comprehension significantly.

Another factor which may be involved is the amount of time devoted to instruction. We found that the amount of time spent was highly correlated with the effect of instruction ($r = .65$). This is not only statistically significant, but educationally important. In the studies we looked at, researchers allocated 10 seconds per word to over 20 minutes for instruction. Obviously, most teachers are not able to devote 20 minutes to teaching each word. However, even with less time it appears that the principles discussed above hold.

Studies which gave equal amounts of time to balanced or definitional-only instruction found balanced instruction to be significantly more effective. Also, at least one study which controlled for time spent but varied processing requirements found an advantage for deeper processing. Therefore, while spending more time on teaching word meanings may lead to greater gains, how one spends that time is also important."

Stahl, Steven A. "Three principles of effective vocabulary instruction." Journal of Reading, 29 (April 1986), p. 665.

APPENDIX FF

The modern theories of comprehension require us as educators to realize that the whole process of comprehension is much more active, constructive, and reader-based than our older theories suggested.

Pearson, P. David. "Changing the face of reading comprehension." The Reading Teacher, 38 (April 1985), p. 734.

Madeline Hunter refers to this important psychological generalization: active participation by the learner increases his rate and degree of learning.

Hunter, Madeline. Teach More - Faster! California: Tip Publications, 1986, p. 78.

There are three principles that characterize effective vocabulary instruction. Principle 2 is discussed here.

"Principle 2: Encourage 'deep' processing - As in other areas of reading, it is not the materials alone which determine the success of vocabulary instruction. What students do with those materials is also important. The 'depth of processing' framework used in shortterm memory research(see Lachman, Lachman, & Butterfield, 1979) seems useful in discussing student learning activities. According to this framework, when people process to-be-learned information more 'deeply' they are more likely to remember that information than when information is processed more shallowly. 'Deep' processing can be defined as either making more connections between new and known information (or relating the word to more information than

the student already knows) or spending more of one's mental effort on learning. In other words, methods which make students think "deeply" about a word and its relationships are more likely to be effective.

I define three different levels of processing for vocabulary instruction:

1) Association processing is when a student simply learns an association. Sometimes the association is between a word and a synonym, or sometimes the association is between a word and a single context, if the student only sees the word in context with no added information about the word.
2) Comprehension processing is when the student applies a learned association to demonstrate understanding of the word. This involves doing something with the association such as finding an antonym, fitting the word into a sentence blank, classifying the word with other words, etc., requiring the student to go beyond just giving back the association or something similar.
3) Generation processing involves taking that comprehended association and generating a novel product using it. This product could be a restatement of the definition in one's own words, comparing the definition to one's own experiences, making up a novel sentence that demonstrates the word's meaning clearly, etc. The product does not have to be written. It could be oral, as in a discussion. In fact, class discussion appears to lead students to process words more deeply, by drawing more connections between new and known information.

Appendix FF continued

These three increasingly deep levels of processing produced increasingly strong effects on comprehension, with vocabulary teaching methods requiring generative processing producing stronger effects than those requiring comprehension processing. Those methods requiring association processing only did not have a significant effect on comprehension, while methods requiring comprehension or generation processing did."

Stahl, Steven A. "Three principles of effective vocabulary instruction." Journal of Reading, 29, (April 1986), p. 664.

Lachman, Roy, Janet L. Lachman and Earl C. Butterfield. Cognitive Psychology and Information Processing. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1979.

APPENDIX GG

Knowing the distinction between metacognition and cognition may be helpful to you. "Cognition refers to using knowledge possessed; metacognition refers to a person's awareness and understanding of that knowledge. Cognition implies having the skills; metacognition refers to awareness and conscious control over those skills. With regard to reading, knowing what kind of strategies to use or actions one must take to construct meaning from text, and when to use these strategies to achieve different goals of reading, are metacognitive activities."

Stewart, Oran and Ebo Tei. "Some implications of metacognition for reading instruction." Journal of Reading, 27 (October 1983), 36 - 37.

APPENDIX HH

Metacognition and the reading process

1. The reader consciously intends to control the reading act (a metacognitive experience.)
2. The reader establishes the goal of the reading act.
3. The reader focuses on her/his metacognitive knowledge (a metacognitive experience)
   a. Knowledge of her/his own cognitive processes.
   b. Knowledge of the demands imposed by different reading goals and by different types of reading material.
4. The reader strategically plans the regulation and monitoring of the reading act.
   a. Metacognitive strategies and skills:
      Rereading, skimming, summarizing
      Paraphrasing, predicting
      Looking for important ideas
      Testing one's understanding
      Identifying the pattern of text
      Sequencing the events
      Looking for relationships
      Reading ahead for clarification
      Mentally executing the directions
      Relating new knowledge to prior knowledge
   b. Selection of metacognitive skills and strategies.
   c. Implementation of the skills and strategies.
5. Periodic assessment of reading success (a metacognitive experience).

Babbs, Patricia J. and Alden J. Moe. "Metacognition: A key for independent learning from text." The Reading Teacher, 36 (January 1983), 423.

APPENDIX II

"Teachers can use a variety of strategies to enhance metacognition, independent of grade level and subject area.

1. Planning Strategy: Prior to any learning activity, teachers should point out strategies and steps for attacking problems, rules to remember, and directions to follow. Time constraints, purposes, and ground rules under which students must operate should be identified and internalized. Making these guidelines explicit helps students keep them in mind during the lesson and gives them a way to evaluate their performance afterwards.

During the activity, teachers can invite students to share their progress, thought processes, and perceptions of their own behavior. Asking students to indicate where they are in their strategy, to describe their trail of thinking up to that point, and to define alternative problem-solving pathways they intend to pursue next helps them become aware of their own behavior. It also provides teachers with a diagnostic cognitive map of students' thinking, which can be used to give more individualized assistance.

Than, after the learning activity, teachers can invite students to evaluate how well the rules were obeyed, how productive the strategies were, whether the instructions were followed correctly, and whether alternative, more efficient strategies could be used in the future."

"Of all instructional techniques suggested, the one with the probability of greatest influence on students is that of teacher modeling. Since students learn best by imitating the adults around them, the teacher who publicly demonstrates metacognition will

Appendix II continued

probably produce students who metacogitate. Some indicators of teachers' public metacognitive behavior might be: sharing their planning - describing their goals and objectives and giving reasons for their actions: making human errors and then illustrating recovery from those errors by getting back on track; admitting they do not know an answer but designing ways to produce an answer; seeking feedback and evaluation of their actions from others; having a clearly stated value system and making decisions consistent with that system; being able to self-disclose - using adjectives that describe their own strengths and weaknesses; demonstrating understanding and empathy by listening to and accurately describing the ideas and feelings of others."

Costa, Arthur L. "Mediating the metacognitive," Educational Leadership (November 1984), pp. 57 - 62.

"Several researchers have described various 'fix-up' strategies that effective readers use when confronted with 'problematic' text. Some of these 'fix-up' strategies are equally useful during reading to prevent difficulties. Among these 'fix-up' strategies are such techniques as: rereading, questioning as one reads, looking back, visualizing, identifying author's paragraph patterns, summarizing, paraphrasing, reading ahead for clarification, and asking for help. Strategies such as these do not become part of a reader's 'repertoire' easily, however, particularly for disabled readers, so several researchers are advocating a 'direct instruction' (or modeling) approach, involving the gradual transfer of responsibility for

Appendix II continued

comprehension monitoring, in which the teacher 1) initially takes all of the responsibility for task completion (modeling) followed by 2) guided practice, where the responsibility is shared, and 3) independent practice with feedback where the student takes most of the responsibility for task completion. This direct instruction model gives teachers an opportunity to effectively 'preach,' during the modeling stage, what is practiced by good readers."

Biggam, Susan Carey. "Preaching what we practice." The New England Reading Association Journal, 20 (Spring/Summer 1985), pp. 30 - 31.

APPENDIX JJ

Here are some generalizations that apply to practice:

1) Practice the smallest part that retains maximum meaning and does not waste the learner's time. You begin with the whole thing to develop meaning and relationships (consider plot of whole play first so you maximize the meaning of the total) but you start practicing the smallest part that is a unit (practice one scene at a time). As you learn smaller parts, you can relate them to larger parts. Finally you put the whole thing together. Work with one skill at a time.

2) Practice the shortest time that will permit the student to feel he has really accomplished something. Working at full speed for a short time (5 minutes) will give a great deal of practice in productive "hurrying." Trying to maintain that speed for long periods of time results in fatigue, which in turn results in practicing at slower speeds, to say nothing of the increase in mechanical errors.

3) Mass practice at the beginning of learning. (Appendix U).

Hunter, Madeline. Teach More - Faster! California: TiP Publications, 1986, pp. 83 - 92.

By making learning meaningful, you can reduce the amount of time you need to spend in practice. If you have enough meaning, you won't need practice.

Hunter, Madeline. Teach More - Faster! California: TiP Publications, 1986, p. 56.

APPENDIX KK

"Students with specific knowledge about their criterion task will learn more from subsequent study than students with only vague notions about their assigned tasks.

When students have specific steps in how to perform a process, receive extensive modeling and repeated practice in concrete and realistic contexts, and are told why those steps are important to their learning, they can learn how to behave as effective and mature readers."

Simpson, Michele L. "PORPE: A writing strategy for studying and learning in the content areas." Journal of Reading, 29 (February 1986), p. 408.

"Clearly stating the concept or concepts to be learned makes it more probable students will learn them."

Herber, Harold. Teaching Reading in Content Areas, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1978, p. 230.

"Teachers are responsible for alerting the students about the goal of the instructional task, the usefulness of such a task, and the ways to complete the task." (p. 311)

Effective reading comprehension requires that the teacher emphasize to students the understanding and usefulness of lessons. Researchers have found that teachers seldom tell students what is to be learned and how it relates to other work. (p. 307)

Appendix KK continued

Roehler and Duffy discuss effective instructional behavior. Telling students what they are going to learn, how to do it and why it is important were given high ratings. Explicit instruction that provided a good explanation regarding why it was useful to learn the skill giving students a reasonable rationale for pursuing the learning was regarded as improving instruction in comprehension. Another important oomponent of direct explanation is: The more specific the teacher is, the more explicit instruction becomes and the more aware pupils are of what is being learned and how to do it. (pp. 270 - 278)

We should "provide students with more complete explanations about the comprehension strategies they are being taught. The explanations should focus on helping students understand what the strategy is, why it should be used, how to use it, when and where it is to be used, and how to evaluate its effectiveness. If students better understand the purposes and benefits of reading strategies, perhaps they will take more control over their own learning."

Winograd, Peter and Marilyn Greenlee. "Students Need a Balanced Reading Program." Educational Leadership, 43 (April 1986), p. 19.

APPENDIX LL

When testing decoding, each decoding pattern, if applying strict psychometric principles, would be assessed with 10 - 15 items, but since this requires quite a bit of time, an alternative is to assess using 8 - 10 items per pattern.

Venezky, Richard L. Issues in the Design of Phonics Instruction. Ohio: Ginn and Company, 1983, p. 6.

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Anderson, Richard C., Elfrieda H. Hiebert, Judith A. Scott, Ian A. G. Wilkinson. Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, 1984.

Questions 2 (p.56), 4 (p.67), 10 (p.71), 11 (p.44), 12 (pp.39-40), 13 (p.38), 14 (p.38), 15 (p.57), 16 (p.38), 17 (p.46), 21 (p.55), 34 (p.79), 38 (p.68), 39 (p.68_, 40A (p.66), 40B (p.56), 42 (p.56).

Osborn, Jean H., Beau Fly Jones, and Marcy Stein. "The Case for Improving Textbooks." Educational Leadership, 42 (April 1985), pp. 9 - 16.

Questions 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 18, 19, 20, 21, 24, 25, 26, 31, 32, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 42, 49, 45, 46, 47, 51, 52, 53, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 62, 63, 64.

Stahl, Steven A. "Three Principles of effective vocabulary instruction." Journal of Reading, 29 (April 1986), pp. 662 - 667.

Questions 48, 49, 50

Bracey. Gerald W. "Mismatch of Testing Instruction Is Pervasive." Phi Delta Kappan (March 1986), pp. 534 - 5.

Questions 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71.

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Questions 41, 65, 69, 70, 71, 73

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Thomas, Ellen Lamar and H. Alan Robinson. Improving Reading in Every Class. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1982, p.71.

Questions 6, 7, 35, 36, 45.

Aulls, Mark W. and Michael F. Graves. Desert Magic Teaching Guide. New York: Scholastic, Inc., 1985, p. 22.

Question 22

Hunter, Madeline. Teach More - Faster. California: TiP Publications, 1986, p. 92, p. 95.

Question 33.

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